

**The Relationship Between Efl Learners' First And
Second Languages Based on Judgments of Grammatical
Correctness of Article Usage**

A Thesis

**Submitted to The Faculty of Letter
And The Institute of Economics And Social Science
Of Bilkent University
In Partial Fulfillment of The Requirements
For The Degree of Master of Arts
In The Teaching of English As A Foreign Language**

**By
Kader Kızıl
August, 1992**

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BY

KADER KIZIL

AUGUST 1992

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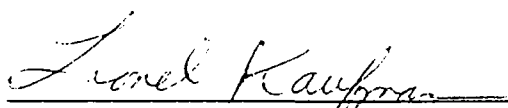
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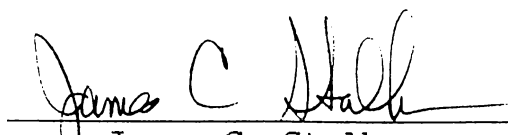
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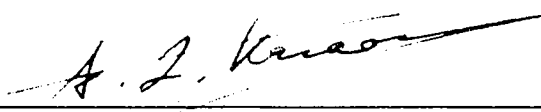
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TO MY PARENTS and MY SISTER, SEDER

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to answer the following question: Is there a relationship between the learners' first language (L1) and judgments of grammatical correctness of sentences in their L2?

The relationship between learners' native and second languages can be viewed from different aspects of learners' verbal performance, such as grammatical errors, non-use of L1 rules similar in L2, judgments of grammatical correctness, and avoidance. The purpose of this particular study is to explore the relationship between the learners' judgments of grammatical correctness of various sentences containing the articles a, an, or the and the learners' first languages.

The first part of this study, therefore, involved collecting data on learners' production of writing samples with errors in the articles a, an, and the. The second part focused on recording the judgments from the same learners about the grammaticality of the writing samples containing these errors. The subjects selected for this study came from four different L1 backgrounds. Subjects from two first language backgrounds, Turkish and Japanese, were selected since they have a common feature in terms of using no article. On the other hand, the other subjects, French and German, had first languages where articles are commonly used.

The initial research procedures consisted of asking subjects to write a composition on how they learned English. Then, 43 sentences extracted from the subjects writing samples were checked by 10 British native speakers of English in order to be sure that native speakers agreed on the use of articles in these sentences. Then 30 sentences were extracted out of the original 43 based on information provided by the native speakers, and these were used in the questionnaire. After this, the non-native speaking subjects were asked in the questionnaire to indicate correct and incorrect sentences and underline the incorrect portion of the sentences by writing the correct form above.

In analyzing the data, subjects were initially classified into two groups according to their first language backgrounds. Subjects who spoke Turkish and Japanese were placed in the (-) article language group whereas the others who spoke French and German constituted the (+) article language group. The analysis of results showed that subjects first languages influenced their judgments of grammatical correctness of sentences containing errors in the use of articles. The subjects from (+) article languages, French and German, performed significantly better than the subjects from (-) article languages, Turkish and Japanese, while making judgments on grammaticality on the items in the questionnaire. Moreover, significant

differences which were found between the performance of (-) article first languages and (+) article first languages confirmed the hypothesis that EFL learners judgments of grammatical correctness were affected by the differences between their first and second languages in terms of appropriate use of the articles a, an, and the.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND AND GOALS OF THE STUDY

1.1.1 Background of the Study

It is said that the process of second language acquisition is similar to that of first language acquisition (Jakobovits, 1970; Newmark, 1971; Reibel, 1969). During most of this century, the first language has been considered the scapegoat in second language learning, the major cause of a learner's problems with the target language. During the process of learning a second language, learners encounter some difficulties and, consequently, they often commit errors (Dulay and Burt, 1974). Learners' sentences may be deviant, ill-formed, incorrect or erroneous in terms of the grammar of the mother tongue and the target language.

On the other hand, a more contemporary cognitive approach is to view target language acquisition as a process of 'creative construction' and hypothesis-testing and to examine both the similarities and differences between the first and target languages. Errors, therefore, are unavoidable and even desirable and can be regarded as evidence of the creative construction process at work in language learning. Thus, an alternative approach, that of "error analysis", is "a listing and classification of the errors contained in a sample of learner's speech or writing" (Dulay and

Burt, 1981, p. 277).

Nevertheless, since the 1940's "Contrastive Analysis" has been used to show the synchronic differences and similarities between the mother-tongue and the language being learned. Contrastive Analysis was developed and practised in the 1950's and 1960's as an application of structural linguistics to language teaching. It allows for a comparison between L1 and L2 in order to outline an approach for investigating the influence of the first language in second language learning.

Contrastive Analysis is also concerned with the theory of 'transfer'. According to this theory, the student who tries to learn a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult (Altunkaya, 1990). Those elements that are similar to the native language will be simple for learners and those elements that are different will be difficult. Also, L2 learners will tend to transfer to their L2 utterances the formal features of their L1. As Lado (1957) puts it, "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning and the distribution of form and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture" (p. 63).

Consequently, the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis states that interference is due to unfamiliarity with the L2, that is, to the learner

not having learned target language patterns. However, Sridhar (1980) claims that a substantial number of errors made by foreign language learners can be traced to their mother tongue.

Nevertheless, it is recognized today that not all errors can be traced to L1 interference. Research has shown that it is often the similarities rather than the differences between the first and target languages which cause the most confusion for learners (Larsen-Freeman, 1991). According to Wode (1978), "only if L1 and L2 have structures meeting a crucial similarity measure will there be interference, i.e., reliance on prior L1 knowledge" (p. 116).

1.1.2 Goals of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the role of L1 in L2 performance, focusing on judgments of grammatical correctness. This study focused on learners' production errors in the articles a, an, and the in writing samples and also judgments from the same learners about the grammaticality of sentences containing these errors which were extracted from their writing samples. Since errors in article usage in English have always been considered one of the most formidable problems for second language speakers to overcome in learning English grammar and article misuse is one of the most obvious signs that a person is not a native

speaker of English, this study will examine the articles a, an, and the in English sentences.

The subjects who participated in this research came from different L1 backgrounds. Subjects from two first language backgrounds, Japanese and Turkish, were selected since they have a common feature in their L1 in terms of using no article. On the other hand, the other subjects, French and German, had first languages where articles are commonly used.

The use of Contrastive Analysis was discussed as a method of contrasting the subjects' L1 (Japanese, Turkish, French, and German) and L2 (English) and predicting second language learners' errors. On the other hand, both contrastive analysis and error analysis view second language learners' errors as potentially important for understanding the processes of second language acquisition. Since English teachers are trying to help students gain fluency and accuracy in English, it is important to be concerned with the kind of errors which learners make. One approach, Contrastive Analysis, considers the differences between the native and target language and the possible interference of the first language (L1) in second language (L2) performance. While Contrastive Analysis, which predicts errors on the basis of differences between the two languages, will be used

as an analytical tool for this study, it is conceivable that where article usages in L1 and L2 are similar, learners will also encounter difficulties.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH TOPIC

1.2.1 The Research Question

This study focused on the following question: Will EFL learners' judgments of grammatical correctness be affected by the differences between their first and second languages in terms of appropriate use of the articles a, an, and the ?

1.2.2 Discussion of the Research Topic

Until recently, it was widely believed that most second language learners' errors resulted from their automatic use of L1 structures when attempting to produce the L2. It was felt that students tended to transfer the sentence forms, modification devices, number, gender, and case patterns of their native language. This transfer occurs very subtly so that the learners are not even aware of it unless it is called to their attention in specific instances.

According to the Contrastive Analysis (CA) hypothesis, the automatic "transfer" of L1 structure to L2 performance is "negative" when L1 and L2 structures differ, and "positive" when L1 and L2 structures are the same. Negative transfer, according to the CA, hypothesis, would result in

errors, while positive transfer would result in correct constructions.

Lado (1988) points out that even languages as closely related as German and English differ significantly in the form, meaning, and distribution of their grammatical structures. Since the learners tend to transfer the habits of their native language structure to the foreign language, they will have either a major source of difficulty or ease in learning the structure of a foreign language. Those structures that are similar will be easy to learn because they will be transferred and may function satisfactorily in the foreign language. Those structures that are different will be difficult because when transferred they will not function satisfactorily in the foreign language and will therefore have to be changed.

Based on the view supported by Lado, this study attempts to investigate if there is a relationship between the learners' first language (L1) and second language (L2) by analyzing the learners' grammaticality judgments of appropriate use of the articles a, an, and the in English sentences. In English, the conceptual basis for use or omission of the article is a persistent problem for most non-native learners. For Spanish, French, or German learners the problem is not great, as the concept of specifying a definite or indefinite noun by use

of an article exists in these languages, although the lack of an article before "non-count" non-definitized nouns may cause errors. In this research, Japanese and Turkish languages were chosen as the L1 for one group of subjects since article items do not exist in these languages. The other subjects were chosen from those whose L1 is French or German since these languages use articles in the manner described above.

The assumption underlying this study is related to a body of research done from 1974 to 1989 on the role of L1 in L2 performance. In one study, Schachter, Tyson, and Diffley (1976) focused on the relationship between the student's language group and his/her judgments about the correctness of various relative clause sentences in English. This research involved students from different L1 backgrounds. The researchers constructed a variety of misformed English sentences based on a one-to-one translation from the native languages of the students and asked students to indicate which of these sentences were grammatical. The results of the data obtained from the questionnaire showed that the students' L1 could not be inferred from the errors they made in their judgments of grammaticality.

In the another study Ioup and Kruse (1977) also elicited grammar judgments on various relative

clause constructions from students who represented the same language backgrounds studied by Schachter et al. (1976). Again, misformed sentences containing relative clauses were constructed so that they corresponded to the structure of the students' native languages and the students were asked to mark those which they deemed incorrect in English. After data analysis, the researchers concluded that there was no significant relationship between the students' language group and their judgments about the correctness of English sentence types which were modeled on the native language word order of each language group. Ioup and Kruse (1977) state that "contrary to the contrastive analysis hypothesis, sentence type rather than native language background is the most reliable predictor of error" (p. 165).

Nevertheless, the present study differs from previous research in terms of following different methodological procedures and being conducted in a different language environment. The subjects participating in this study are learning English in a foreign language environment and primarily in formal class situations whereas the subjects of previous research were learning English in a more natural setting, that is, a second language environment. In addition, another methodological procedure was used in this study. The sentences which were used in order to measure the subjects'

grammatical correctness were those extracted from subjects' own writing samples and contained either an appropriate use of an article or an incorrect deletion of an article based on the differences between their L1 (Turkish, Japanese, French, and German) and L2 (English).

1.3 HYPOTHESES

1.3.1 Null Hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between the learners' judgments of grammatical correctness on various sentences containing the articles a, an, or the and their first languages (Turkish, Japanese, French, and German).

1.3.2 Experimental Hypothesis

There is a relationship between the learners' judgments of correctness of L2 sentences using the articles a, an, and the and the learners' first languages.

1.3.3 Identification of Variables

Dependent Variable: Judgments of grammatical correctness of sentences using the articles a, an, and the.

Independent Variable: The learners' first language (+ article and - article languages).

1.4 OVERVIEW OF METHODOLOGY

Forty subjects between the ages of 18 and 23 participated in this study. The subjects were from four different L1 backgrounds-Turkish, Japanese,

French, and German. The 10 Turkish and 10 Japanese subjects were studying English at the intermediate level at Turkce Ogretim Merkezi (TOMER) in Ankara, Turkey. The other subjects were 10 native speakers of French and 10 native speakers of German studying English at the intermediate level at the Turkish-French Association and the private school of the German Embassy in Ankara, respectively. All subjects participating in the study came from the four aforementioned classes.

The initial research procedures consisted of asking subjects to write a composition on how they learned English. Then, the 43 sentences that contained both correct and incorrect usage of article items a, an, and the were extracted from the subjects' writing samples. Some of the incorrect sentences also had article deletion. Then, these sentences were checked by 10 British native speakers of English in order to be sure that native speakers agreed on the use of articles in the extracted sentences. After the responses of the 10 British native speakers of English were analyzed, 30 sentences were extracted out of the original 43 and these were used in the questionnaire. After this, the non-native speaking subjects were asked to indicate correct and incorrect sentences in the questionnaire. For sentences identified as incorrect, subjects were also asked to identify the

correct forms by underlining incorrect portions of the sentences and to write the correct form above the underlined words or phrases. Data analysis involved comparing subjects' responses to the questionnaire with their first language backgrounds in order to see if there was a systematic relationship between the subjects' errors made in the judgment task and their first language.

1.5 ORGANIZATION OF THESIS

A review of current literature on contrastive and error analysis is provided in Chapter 2. It focuses on a contrastive analysis of the use of articles in two language categories - one consisting of French and German, where articles are used, and the other consisting of Turkish and Japanese, where articles are not used. A grammatical analysis of a, an, and the article usage in English is also included. Chapter 3 provides information about the subjects selected for this study and the materials which were used to obtain the data of this study.

The sentences selected from subjects' writing samples that contain correct and incorrect usages of articles were examined according to their first languages and the results are discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 discusses the implication of the findings for teaching articles in English as a foreign language (EFL) classes and suggestions for future research of this issue.

1.6 LIMITATIONS

This study is limited to measuring EFL learners' judgments of grammatical correctness of sentences containing errors in article usage based on the differences between their L1 and L2. However, based on this evidence of first language interference at the recognition level it can not be unequivocally said that the first language will interfere with second language learning at the productive level.

On the other hand, this study involves the article errors made only by Turkish, Japanese, French, and German students studying English as a foreign language in Turkey. The findings, therefore, may or may not be relevant to EFL learners from other first language backgrounds or to those studying in an ESL (English as a Second Language) environment.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This study aims to determine if there is a relationship between learners' judgments of grammatical correctness in L2 and their first languages. In order to see whether learners' L1 affects their judgments of grammatical correctness in L2, this study extracted the learners' own errors in the articles a, an, and the from their writing samples so as to elicit their judgments about the grammaticality of these flawed sentences. Recently, it was believed, based on behaviorist learning theory, that most second language learners' errors would result from their automatic use of L1 structures when attempting to produce the L2.

Since both the contrastive analysis and error analysis techniques have played an important role in analyzing learners' errors as well as the potential areas of interference, the theoretical principles of these two approaches are discussed in this chapter. In addition, the ways in which definite and indefinite articles are used in Turkish, Japanese, French, and German are explored.

The contrastive analysis section discusses a definition of contrastive analysis, an application of contrastive analysis to teaching, and the use of contrastive analysis in diagnosing L2 errors. In the error analysis section, the terms "error" and

"error analysis" are defined. In addition, types of errors and error correction techniques are discussed.

In the third section the articles a, an, and the in English are analyzed according to the contexts in which they are used. The uses of articles in Turkish, Japanese, French, and German are also examined and examples from these languages together with their English equivalents are provided.

2.2 CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Contrastive analysis (CA) is a method in linguistics which seeks to compare the sounds, grammars and vocabularies of two languages with the aim of describing the similarities and differences between them (Marton, 1979). One of the first linguists to put forward the idea of contrastive analysis in the 1940s was Charles Fries (1945). In addition, Robert Lado (1957), one of the prime movers of this approach, has presented the following propositions:

- a) In the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.
- b) The most effective language teaching materials are those that are based on a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compare with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.
- c) The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the real problems can better

provide for teaching them. Therefore, we can say that the origins of Contrastive Analysis are pedagogic. (p. 93)

Another definition of CA given by James (1980) is:

A linguistics enterprise aimed at producing an inverted (i.e. contrasting not comparative) two-valued topologist (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared. (p. 3)

The aims of contrastive studies are to predict errors and difficulties faced by learners while learning any grammatical item of the target language and also to use the results in classroom teaching. On the other hand, Sharwood Smith (1976b) defined the aims of contrastive studies as theoretical and practical. Theoretical aims include the desire to increase present knowledge within the field of linguistics, while practical aims mainly relate to the teaching and construction of teaching materials. Lado (1988) claimed that a careful comparison of the native language with the language to be learned would result in predictable problems for the learner, and that the teaching of those problematic parts should be emphasized in preparing materials. Lado further describes his fundamental assumption as follows:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning, and the distribution of forms and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture—both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to speak the language and to grasp and understand the language and the culture as

practised by natives. (p. 79)

Later, contrastive analysis (CA) took the position that a learner's first language "interferes" with his or her acquisition of a second language, and this interference, therefore, comprises the major obstacle to successful mastery of the new language. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) state that the CA hypothesis held that where structures in the L1 differed from those in the L2, errors that reflected the structure of the L1 would be produced. Such errors are due to the influence of the learners' L1 habits on L2 production. Lado (1988) believe that students find it easier to learn the target language patterns that are similar to those in their mother tongue while the different ones will be difficult to learn and even problematic for them. On the other hand, Whitman and Jackson (1972), reporting the results of their study of Japanese learners of English, state that "relative similarity rather than difference, is directly related to the levels of difficulty" (p. 188).

2.3 THE CONTRASTIVE TEACHING OF L2

Applied contrastive studies gained importance in the 1940s with the recognition of CA as part of foreign language teaching methodology. One of the main assumptions of CA is that the native language of the learner is a very powerful factor in second-language acquisition and one which cannot be

eliminated from the process of learning. On the other hand, Fries (1945) stated: "Learning a second language constitutes a very different task from learning the first language. The basic problems arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new language themselves but primarily out of the special 'set' created by the first language habits" (p. 98).

As for the application of the CA in the classroom, several suggestions have been made. James (1980) defines contrastive language teaching as presenting all of the linguistic system of L2 which contrasts with the corresponding L1 system. He also indicates that not all the systems or not all the components of the systems should be contrasted. Sometimes L1 and L2 may differ in phonology, grammar or syntax. Finocchiaro (1969) mentions the need "to make students aware of the contrasts so that they will understand the reasons for their errors and avoid committing them" (p.155). Nickel and Wagner (1968) agree that in teaching certain aspects of a language, contrastive teaching can be effective regards to these assumptions. Rivers (1981) explains that understanding the differences and/or the similarities between the grammatical structures in L1 and L2 will be helpful for foreign language students.

When used in the classroom, these contrastive

studies employ a useful technique. They take advantage of the previous knowledge of the learners, informing them about similarities and differences between their native languages and the foreign languages they are studying, and warning them about making false analogies and about mother tongue interference (Altunkaya, 1990).

Numerous suggestions have been made on using the findings of contrastive studies to design syllabuses and prepare teaching materials. One of them was from Fries (1945) who pointed out that "the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (p. 9). This suggests that the CA plays an important role in language teaching.

Furthermore, Lado (1988) states that it was the confident expectation of the pioneers in the field that CA would result in the preparation of better textbooks, tests, articles and experiments, and contribute to the general improvement of the teaching and testing of foreign languages. And, thus, CA helps teachers to become better acquainted with the students' learning difficulties. Further, James (1980) mentions two roles of CA in testing. The first one concerns suggestions about what to test, and the second one prescribes the degree of

testing for different L2 items.

During the 1960's the link between foreign-language teaching methodology and contrastive studies was especially close. The most widely accepted approach to teaching second language was the Audio Lingual Method (ALM), which was based on a contrastive analysis of difficulties of L1 and L2. ALM materials were designed to show the problems of L2 to students and also to provide for practice of new patterns. Regarding this, Lado (1988) indicates that:

The problems are those units and patterns that show structural differences between the first language and the second. The disparity between the difficulty of such problems and the units and the patterns that are not problems because they function satisfactorily when transferred to the second language is much greater than we suspect. The problems often require conscious understanding and massive practice, while the structurally analogous units between languages need not be taught: mere presentation in meaningful situations will suffice. (p. 222-223)

On the other hand, Altunkaya (1990) says that:

The results of contrastive analysis are built into language teaching materials, syllabus and tests. And then, it is possible to eradicate the errors caused by the differences between L1 and L2. (p. 40)

2.4 DIAGNOSIS OF ERROR

In recent years, contrastive analysis has come under attack. Despite its usefulness in comparing the structure of a first language to the structure of the second language being learned, and in playing

an important role in designing effective materials for language teaching, CA has its limitations. Sridhar (1980) grouped the major criticisms of contrastive analysis under two headings: (i) "criticism of the predictions made by contrastive analysis" and (ii) "criticism of the theoretical basis of contrastive analysis" (p. 218). Critics of contrastive analysis have argued that native language interference is only one of the sources of error, and many of the difficulties that do turn up are not predicted by contrastive analysis.

In the light of Sridhar's classification of criticisms of contrastive analysis, some critics suggest that the only version of contrastive analysis that has any validity at all is the a posteriori version, and explain that the role of contrastive analysis should be explanatory rather than the a priori or predictive (Gradman, 1971; Lee, 1968; Whitman and Jackson, 1972). On the other hand, Wardhaugh (1970) characterizes the two versions of the contrastive analysis hypothesis as strong and weak versions and suggests that these two versions are assumed to be based on L1 interference. He goes on to say:

The strong claims predictive power while the weak, less ambitiously, claims merely to have the power to diagnose errors that have been committed. The strong version is a priori, the weak version ex post facto in its treatment of errors. (pp. 184-185)

While Lado (1988) refers to the strong version of

the CA hypothesis, Wardhaugh (1970) assumes that "the CA hypothesis is only tenable in its 'weak' or diagnostic function, and not tenable as a predictor of error" (pp. 224). Wardhaugh holds that in analyzing errors, interference from L1 should be diagnosed first and if that does not clarify the problem, the long job of finding some other reason begins. On the other hand, a proponent of the weak version of contrastive analysis is Marton (1979) who states "the contrastive analyst is more interested in how rules differ in their applicability to congruent deep structures (or intermediate structures) of two languages" (p. 117).

In addition to these two versions of contrastive analysis, James (1980) takes yet another position contending that "contrastive analysis is always predictive, and the job of diagnosis belongs to the field of error analysis (EA). He shows their relation with each other:

I have no wish to vindicate CA at the expense of EA: each approach has its vital role to play in accounting for L2 learning problems. They should be viewed as complementing each other rather than as competitors for some procedural pride of place. (p. 187)

However, in the absence of appropriate descriptions and comparisons of errors, proponents of the CA approach insist that use of error analysis alone cannot be an effective approach. Sharma (1986) explains that EA looks at the errors made in

L2, and identifies, describes and also explains these errors for a better understanding of the language learning process. Nevertheless, he feels that the frequency counts of errors can be useful in designing a syllabus to give teaching priority to the erroneous areas only if the counts are supported by the findings of contrastive linguistics.

2.5 ERRORS VERSUS MISTAKES AND LAPSES

In order to understand the changing perceptions of learner errors, it will first be necessary to distinguish between two terms—errors and mistakes. Corder (1981) defines mistakes as "deviations due to performance factors such as memory lapses, physical states such as tiredness and psychological conditions such as strong emotion". He also says mistakes are random and easily corrected by the learners when their attention is drawn to them. On the other hand, Corder defines errors as:

systematic, consistent deviances which reveal the learners' "transitional competence," that is, their underlying knowledge of the language at a given stage of learning. (p. 201)

Further, Sridhar (1980) points out that the newer interpretation of "error" as the learner's deviations from target language norms should not be regarded as undesirable; they are inevitable and a necessary part of the learning process.

The other identification of mistakes and errors was given by Janicki (1985). He says mistakes have

to do with performance whereas errors are related to the speaker's knowledge (competence). Mistakes are caused by a lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness or some other aspect of performance and they can be false starts or changes of mind.

Lapses, as Altunkaya (1990) states, are the native speaker's slips of tongue or pen. Altunkaya defines lapses as:

Typical of such slips are the substitution, transposition or omission of some segment of an utterance, such as a speech sound, a morpheme, a word or even a phrase. (1990, p. 3)

He also says that lapses and mistakes are corrected by the speaker if the speaker notices them. They are both made by foreign language learners. For these reasons, lapses and mistakes are not systematic.

On the other hand, errors are systematic and they are the signs that the learner has not mastered the code of the target language. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) claim that studying learners' errors serves two major purposes:

1. It provides data from which inferences about the nature of the language learning process can be made;
2. It indicates to teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language learners have most difficulty producing and which error types detract most from a learner's ability to communicate effectively. (p. 262)

As regarding this, in their article Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) explain that errors can be

significant in three ways:

1. They tell the teachers how far the learner has come and what he or she must learn;
2. They give the researcher evidence of how language is learned (i.e., strategies and procedures used);
3. They are a device the learner uses to test out hypotheses concerning the language he or she is learning. (p. 445)

Generally, the errors which break communication or which cause misunderstanding are important in error correction. Some first language acquisition researchers (e.g., Newmark, 1971; Slobin, 1975) view errors as an inevitable feature of language acquisition and have provided some writers on second language acquisition, such as Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), with the rationale that errors provide cues to the learning process. Since certain error types--such as overgeneralization, which are attributable to the nature of the first language, are error patterns which children inevitably pass into and out of as they mature, little educational significance needs to be given to such errors. One view in child rearing and education is that these types of errors are best ignored.

Depending on the type of syllabus--structural, notional-functional, situational, etc.--attitudes towards errors and prescriptions for their treatment change accordingly. For example, Long (1985) points out that the Natural Approach and task-based

language teaching prescribe avoidance of error correction.

2.6 ERROR ANALYSIS

The technique of "Error Analysis" (EA) is defined by Crystal (1980) as follows:

In language teaching and learning, error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying, and systematically interpreting the mistakes made by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics. (p. 135)

Another definition by Sharma (1986) is as follows:

Error analysis is a process based on analysis of learners' errors with one clear objective: evolving a suitable and effective teaching-learning strategy and remedial measures necessary in certain clearly marked out areas of the foreign language. (p. 76)

He adds that error analysis can be very useful at the beginning stage of a program or during the various stages of a long teaching program. In a teaching program, error analysis can reveal both the successful and unsuccessful parts of this program.

Yet, according to Sridhar (1980) until recently error analysis;

went little beyond a collection of common errors and their taxonomic classification into categories. Little attempt was made either to define errors in a pedagogical insightful way or to systematically account for the occurrence of errors either in linguistic or psychological terms. The goals of error analysis were purely pragmatic and it was conceived and performed for its 'feedback' value in designing pedagogical materials and strategies. (pp. 219)

On the other hand, according to some scholars (Richards, 1983; Sharwood, 1976a; Wardhaugh, 1970), the claim for using error analysis as a primary pedagogical tool was based on three arguments:

1. "Error analysis does not suffer from the inherent limitations of contrastive analysis - restriction to errors caused by interlingual transfer: error analysis brings to light many other types of errors frequently made by learners." (Richards, 1983, p.128)

2. "Error analysis, unlike contrastive analysis, provides data on actual, attested problems and not hypothetical problems and therefore forms a more efficient and economic basis for designing pedagogical strategies." (Sharwood, 1976a, p. 243)

3. "Error analysis is not confronted with the complex theoretical problems encountered by contrastive analysis." (Wardhaugh, 1970, p. 156)

A proponent of error analysis, Wilkins (1968) argues that there is no necessity for a prior comparison of grammars and that an error-based analysis is "equally satisfactory, more fruitful, and less time consuming" (p. 102). Most reserchers, however, do not support such an extreme position. Studies by Banathy and Madarasz (1969), Celce-Murcia (1978), Richards (1971), and Schachter (1974), among others, reveal that since there are errors that are not handled by contrastive analysis, error analysis can supplement the results of contrastive analysis.

2.7 ERRORS and CORRECTIONS IN L1

While learning their mother tongue, children make frequent mistakes and use many broken sentences

and phrases. However, most parents do not consider them errors; they even feel happy to hear that the child speaks and uses the language. As children hear similar sentences, phrases or words, spoken by the people around them, they soon change their sentences to conform with the correct form (Krashen, 1985). Consequently, in acquiring L1, self-correction is made unconsciously.

2.8 ERRORS and CORRECTIONS IN L2

While learning a foreign language, students make many mistakes. Teachers want to correct them to help the students. While some teachers think that all errors should be corrected, others hold that constant correction is bad for the student because it discourages the use of the language. Chastain (1987) emphasizes the importance of communication, and that unless a student is stuck on one error or unless there is unintelligibility, the teacher should not worry about error correction. He believes that some students like to be corrected while others do not; they feel embarrassed when they are corrected. Error correction, he believes is more important at the elementary level, and the higher the level the student is, the less error correction there should be. He says that error correction exercises can be done in beginning-level classes, and a student's persistent errors should be corrected before or after class.

Based on arguments such as these, some scholars (Chaudron, 1988; Hendrickson, 1978) have explained that only the most important errors should be corrected. Hendrickson (1978) states that correcting three types of errors can be quite useful to second language learners:

errors that impair communication significantly; errors that have highly stigmatizing effects on the listener or reader; and errors that occur frequently in students' speech and writing. (p. 392)

He also says that other errors will be corrected unconsciously by the student as he reads and listens. The process is believed to be similar to that of a child learning his mother tongue. What the teacher does in class to correct the errors of students is conscious. This is the main difference between L1 and L2 correction.

Nevertheless, Terrell (1977) feels that no learner errors should be corrected. Krashen and Terrell (1985) express the view that any kind of oral correction of speech will have a negative effect on the students and the students will be discouraged from speaking. They also state that direct correction of speech errors has almost no effect on a child's first and second language acquisition and it is the same for the adult second language acquirers also.

In opposition to the latter view is that of Lado (1988), who believes that errors should be

avoided because if the students commit errors, these errors may become habits and they may be fossilized. He also points out that the patterns that either will or will not cause difficulty in learning L2 can be predicted if the languages and the cultures are compared and adds that the materials to be used should be selected carefully. They should be based on a scientific description of L2 and on a comparison of L1 and L2.

2.9 ERROR TYPES

One classification of errors, proposed by Richards (1983), is: a) interlingual errors, b) intralingual errors, and c) developmental errors.

2.9.1 INTERLINGUAL ERRORS

Errors that reflect the learner's first language structures have been labelled "interlingual errors". Since the learner's native language automatically interferes with the learning of the L2 or automatically transfers to the learner's developing L2 system, the term "interlingual" is chosen to stand for "interference" or "transfer" (Altunkaya, 1990). Further, Richards (1983) attributes this type of error to the influence of L1 and L2 during production and it is presumed that they occur in utterances where the mode of expression of one language clearly differs from that of the other.

From the point of view of the target language,

Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) feel that "interlingual errors are similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner's native language" (p. 171). They suggest that the learners' sentences be translated into their L1 in order to identify the similarities between the translations and the native language forms. Altunkaya (1990), however, gives an example of an error made by a Turkish learner by translating his sentence into Turkish and he indicates that because of the differences between the target language English and the source language Turkish systems, errors coming from Turkish may not exhibit the exact translation of Turkish but still reflect some similarities to this language. He believes that it is possible to predict the errors of native Turkish speakers caused by their native/source language Turkish by looking at a word for word translation. The example he gives is: "Ahmet married with Fatma." which presumably translates "Ahmet Fatma ile evlendi." while a morpheme by morpheme translation would yield "Ahmet Fatma with married" (Altunkaya, 1990, p.5).

Thus, it is believed that L2 learners tend to carry over some features of their L1 into their L2. Nevertheless, the proportion of grammatical errors that can be traced to the native language is reported very low, that is, around 3 to 30 percent.

2.9.2 INTRALINGUAL AND DEVELOPMENTAL ERRORS

If second/foreign language errors cannot be accounted for on the basis of interference from the mother tongue, they are not interlingual errors, but intralingual or developmental errors. Altunkaya (1990) states that "an intralingual error is not the result of a conflict with the native language but the result of some problems in the acquisition of the second language itself" (p. 6), and he adds that intralingual errors arise from the lack of language rules and those of the native speaker. However, Richards' (1983) defines intralingual errors in the following way:

Intralingual errors are those which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply. (p. 174)

Developmental errors are given the following definition:

Developmental errors illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook. (p. 174)

If the complexity of second language structure presents problems for learners, they are expected to make intralingual errors whatever their native language. On the other hand, if the errors made by L2 learners are similar to the errors a child makes in native language acquisition, such errors are called developmental errors. For developmental

errors the sources are the same in learning both L1 and L2 and the learners correct themselves during the learning process.

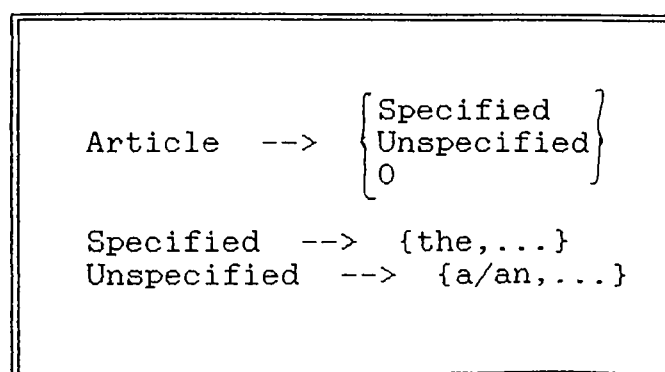
To distinguish developmental errors from intralingual errors, Richards (1983) says, "A major justification for labelling an error as developmental comes from noting similarities to errors as produced by children who are acquiring the target language as their mother tongue" (p. 274). He also states that "developmental errors reflect the strategies by which the learner acquires the language" and that "...the learner .. is making false hypotheses about the target language based on limited exposure to it" (p. 274).

To explain the difference between the interlingual and developmental errors, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) say "... mental mechanisms underlying general language development come into play..." (p. 165). Indicating that these errors may be made by both L1 and L2 learners, Altunkaya (1990) states that they are "the direct result of the learners' attempts to create language based on their hypotheses about the language they are learning" (p. 8) and adds that such errors disappear during the learning process as the learners' language abilities increase.

2.10 THE ARTICLE IN ENGLISH

The words a, an, and the are called articles. The rules for generating articles suggested by Lester (1970, p. 36) are as illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1
The Rules For Generating Articles
in English



If "specified" is read as "definite," and "unspecified" as "indefinite," Lester's formulation exactly matches the traditional one; a/an is the indefinite article and the is the definite article.

The correct use of the articles (a/an and the) is one of most difficult points in English grammar and its misuse is one of the most obvious signs that a person is not a native speaker of English. However, most mistakes in the use of the articles do not alter sentence meaning or affect comprehension of the message. Even if we leave all the articles out of a sentence, it is usually possible to understand it. For example: *Please can you lend me pound of butter till end of week?

2.10.1 Determiners

Articles are members of a group of words called "determiners" that are used before nouns. Other words classified as determiners are the possessives (my, your, etc.), the demonstratives (this, that, these, those), and the words some and any.

Two determiners usually cannot be used together. So it is not possible, in English, to say *the my uncle or *the that man. We say either the uncle or my uncle, the man or that man, depending on the meaning (Swan, 1980).

2.10.2 Position of Articles

Articles are usually placed first in the 'noun phrase'. For example: the last few days, a very nice surprise, a really good concert, my only true friend, etc. However, some words can come before articles. For instance, all, both, rather, quite, exactly, just, such, what, and much can precede articles, as in the expression much the same. Other examples of this rule are given in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Words Which Come Before Articles

<u>all the</u> time	<u>both the</u> red dresses
<u>rather a</u> good idea	<u>quite a</u> nice day
<u>exactly the</u> wrong colour	<u>just the</u> right amount
<u>such a</u> funny expression	<u>what a</u> pity

There are also some special constructions made with as, how, so and too, which allow an adjective to precede an article.

2.10.3 The Use of Articles

2.10.3.1 The Use of Articles with Countable/Uncountable Words

The appropriate use of articles depends on the kind of noun it precedes. Nouns can be classified as countable and uncountable. Countable nouns are words like cat, bridge, house, idea. We can count them (one cat, two houses, three ideas), so they can use plural suffixes. The indefinite article a/an really means one, so we can use it with singular countable nouns (a house, an idea), but not with plurals. For example we can say, "We live in a small house," but not *We live in small house; "I have got an idea," but not *I have got idea; "I am afraid of spiders," but not *I am afraid of a spiders. On the other hand, uncountable nouns are words like water, rice, energy, luck. These are items that can be divided up with a unit of measurement (a drop of water, a bowl of rice, a piece of luck), but cannot be counted. We cannot say *one water, *two waters, etc. Therefore, these words do not have plurals. Thus, the indefinite article a/an cannot be used with uncountable words, as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Appropriate Usage of Articles with Uncountable Words

It is nice weather.
 (Not *...a nice weather.)

Water is made of hydrogen and oxygen.
 (Not *A water is made of...)

According to Krohn (1985), rules for the use of articles with countable and uncountable nouns are:

1. a/an can only be used with singular countable nouns (a cat).
2. the can be used with singular and plural countable nouns (the cat, the cats, the water).
3. Plural nouns and uncountable nouns can be used with no article (cats, water), but singular countable nouns cannot.

Singular countable nouns must always have an article (or another determiner like my, this). We can say a cat, the cat, this cat, my cat, but not *cat. (There are some exceptions in expressions with prepositions like by car, in bed.)

2.10.3.2 The Use of Articles with General Words

We use articles in one way if we are talking about things in general (for example Englishmen, or the guitar, or life in general, or whisky), and we use them in a different way when we are talking

about particular examples of these things (for example, an Englishman, or a guitar that we want to buy, or the life of Beethoven, or some whisky that we are drinking). However, when we talk about things in general (e.g., all music, or all literature) we usually use a plural or uncountable noun with no article. Typical mistakes and their correct forms are given in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Typical Mistakes and Their Correct Forms
in General Items

*~~The carrots~~ are my favourite vegetable.
Carrots are my favourite vegetable.

*I love ~~the music, the poetry, the art.~~
I love music, poetry, and art.

When we use an article with a plural or countable noun, the meaning is not general, but particular. Other examples related to this rule are shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5

Examples of Articles of Countable Nouns

He likes cars, girls, food, and drink.. (Not particular cars or girls - he likes them all.)

The cars in that garage belong to the girls who live next door. (Particular cars and girls.)

She loves life. (A very general idea - she loves everything in life.)

2.10.3.3 The Use Of Articles with Particular Items

When we are talking about "particular examples", it depends on whether these are

"definite" or "indefinite". If they are definite, the is normally used. If we are talking about "indefinite" things, we use articles differently (a, some, or no article). Typical mistakes are illustrated in Figure 6.

Figure 6

Inappropriate Use of Articles With Particular Items

*Shut a door.
 *How did you like a film?
 *I think there is the letter for you.
 *I've got the headache.
 *She is studying to be the dentist.

2.10.4 Special Rules and Exceptions for Articles

2.10.4.1 Common Expressions without Articles

In a number of common expressions, an article is dropped after a preposition. For instance; to school, at school, from school, in/to class, to/at/from university/college, to/in/into/from church, to/in/into/out of prison/hospital/bed, to/at/from work, to/at sea, to/in/from town, at lunch, to dinner, at night, by car/bus/bicycle/plane/train/tube/boat, on foot, to go to sleep, etc.

When the above expressions are used with articles, they have special meanings. For example: "He is in prison" (as a prisoner), "He is in the prison" (perhaps as a visitor).

When with or without is followed by a singular countable noun, the an article is normally necessary. It is said "You can not get there without a car." but not *without car. However, articles are often dropped in double expressions with prepositions, like with knife and fork, with hat and coat, from top to bottom, on land and sea, arm in arm, inch by inch, day after day.

2.10.4.2 Genitive Expressions (Possessives)

Articles are not normally used in genitive expressions when the first is a proper name. For instance: We say "John's coat", but not *the John's coat", "America's economic problems", but not *the America's economic problems; "a Bach concerto", but not *a Bach's concerto, etc.

2.10.4.3 Nouns Used as Adjectives

When a noun is used as an adjective (before another noun), the first noun's article is dropped. For example, Lessons in how to play the guitar are guitar lessons; a spot on the sun is a sunspot.

2.10.4.4 Musical Instruments

The definite article is normally used in expressions like play the guitar, learn the piano. On the other hand, there are some differences in the use of articles between the languages of classical music and jazz/pop. The examples are presented in Figure 7.

Figure 7

Appropriate Use of Articles with Musical Instruments

<p>with Alfred Brendel at the piano... with Miles Davis on trumpet... with Art Schlumberger on sax.</p>

2.10.4.5 Numbers

The indefinite article is used in a hundred, a thousand, a million, a billion, etc. For example, we can say, "It'll cost about a hundred pounds", but not *...about hundred pounds. On the other hand, a and one can be used interchangeably in the wrong way. The examples given in Figure 8, while incorrect, according to prescriptive usage rules, are sometimes used by native speakers.

Figure 8

Inappropriate Use of Articles with Numbers

<p>* The journey took exactly <u>a</u> hundred days. * <u>One</u> pint of beer will soon cost <u>one</u> pound. * Mix <u>a</u> pint of milk with <u>a</u> pound of flour.</p>

2.10.4.6 Positions

In certain constructions, the names of positions that people can occupy are used without articles. The examples are shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9

Examples of Articles with the Names of Positions

<p>They elected George <u>chairman</u>. Henry was made <u>captain</u> of the team. He was elected <u>President</u> for the third time. Mr Lewis was appointed <u>chief clerk</u> in 1968. Elizabeth II, <u>Queen</u> of England.</p>
--

In the above cases, it can not be said "Chairman came to lunch" without an article since the name of the position is the complement, not the subject of the sentence. However, these are all 'unique' positions; there is only one Queen of England, only one captain of the team.

2.10.4.7 Place-names

The is usually used with the following kinds of place-names: seas (the Atlantic), mountain groups (the Himalayas), island groups (the West Indies), areas (the Middle East, the Ruhr, the Midwest), rivers (the Rhine), deserts (the Sahara), hotels (the Grand Hotel), cinemas (the Odeon), theatres (the Playhouse), etc.

On the other hand, generally no article is used with: continents (Africa), counties, states, departments, etc. (Berkshire, Westphalia, Texas), towns (Oxford), streets (High Street), lakes (Lake Windermere), etc. There are also some exceptions; countries whose name contains a common noun (the People's Republic of China), the Federal German Republic, the German Democratic Republic, the United Arab Emirates, the USA, the USSR), etc.

However, articles are not usually used in expressions which refer to the principal buildings of a town: Oxford University, Cambridge Polytechnic, Westminster Abbey, Salisbury Cathedral, Bognor Town Hall, Wigan Police Station, Birmingham Airport, etc.

2.11 THE ARTICLE IN TURKISH

2.11.1. The Definite Article

There is no word in Turkish corresponding to the, and only the context tells us whether or not to insert the when translating into English. The examples are presented in Figure 10.

Figure 10

Examples of Use of Definite Article in Context

Cay pahali.	'The expensive.'
Cay soguk.	'The tea cold.'
Vakit nakittir.	'Time money.'
Kapi acik.	'The door open.'
Bilgisayar bozuk.	'The computer out of order.'

Although Turkish has no definite article, direct objects are different in form according to whether or not they are definite in meaning. This encourages native speakers of Turkish to put the with all definite direct objects, leading to mistakes such as illustrated in the examples in Figure 11.

Figure 11

Examples of Inappropriate Use of Definite Article

- * Librarian controlled the my ticket.
 `Kutuphane memuru benim biletimi kontrol etti.`
- * I like the Cambridge.
 `Cambridge'i severim.`

2.11.2 The Indefinite Article

There is an indefinite article in Turkish, and it is placed between an adjective and a noun. As in many European languages, it is generally not used for professions or in negative existentials (Swan, 1980), although such sentences are considered grammatically correct. The examples of this rule are illustrated in Figure 12.

Figure 12

Examples of Use of Indefinite Article Bir
for Professions and Negative Existentials

- Ben (bir) ogrenciyim.
 `I am a student.`
- O (bir) sanatcidir.
 `He is an artist.`
- Hic (bir) otobus yoktu.
 `There was not a bus.`
- Hic (bir) problem yoktu.
 `There was not a problem.`

() = optional but rarely used

The only article of Turkish, bir or `one,' exhibits very complex correlations. It also serves

Figure 13

The Use of Bir as Indefinite Article

<u>bir</u> ev	-	A house
<u>bir</u> adam	-	A man
<u>bir</u> ada	-	An island
<u>bir</u> elma	-	An apple

The definite article the sometimes corresponds to the accusative relational suffix -yi while the indefinite articles a and an correspond roughly to the Turkish article bir which may be omitted in most of its occurrences. The examples are given in Figure 14.

Figure 14

Examples of Use of Definite & Indefinite

Articles in Turkish

(Bir) adam gordum.
 'I saw a man.'

Adam-i gordum.
 'I saw the man.'

(Bir) anahtar buldum.
 'I found a key.'

Anahtar-i buldum.
 'I found the key.'

() = optional usage

The choice between a/an and some is difficult for Turkish learners, since the line between countable and uncountable is less sharply drawn than in English. Therefore, Turkish students tend to overuse some as in the incorrect sentences given below:

* "I asked some policeman: He told you will see some bridge."

* "Bazi polis gordum. O senin bazi kopru gorecegini soyledi."

2.12 THE ARTICLE IN JAPANESE

Although the sentence structure of Japanese is strikingly different from that of English, most of the "content words" that make up a sentence can be categorized in roughly the same way as in English: nouns (hon 'book'), adjectives (atsui 'hot'), verbs (yomu 'read'), adverbs (yukkuri 'slowly'), conjunctions, etc. On the other hand, there is not any definite or indefinite article in Japanese.

Many nouns referring to people may take one of a number of plural suffixes (depending on degree of respect), but if the context makes plurality clear the noun goes unmarked, as do virtually all nouns not referring to people. Therefore, as no element in the Japanese sentence regularly shows plurality, and since the distinction between count and mass (countable and uncountable) is not recognised, number and countability pose major problems. Many Japanese learners achieve really creditable proficiency in all aspects of written English, except for articles and number usages where they experience a countability problem. For example, Japanese native speakers say:

* In Japan, industrial product is cheap.
Because we have an economic growth. But vegetable

is so expensive. Because we Japanese have a few lands.

Since little material exists for teaching articles, this is a very difficult area and also tedious one for native speakers of Japanese. However, many Japanese feel inhibited in speaking because they have not been trained to make instinctive choices of articles. Typical article errors of Japanese learners are as illustrated in Figure 15.

Figure 15

**Examples of Inappropriate Use of Articles
by Japanese EFL learners**

- * We used to live in the big house in suburb of Fukuoka.
- * A house was built of the wood.
- * Oh, That's a shrine; people say some prayers there.
- * I usually spend Sunday by a river; the people who work in office need to relax in some countryside.

2.13 THE ARTICLE IN FRENCH

2.13.1 Use Of The Definite Article

2.13.1.1. Contrary to English usage, the definite article in French is used before abstract nouns and nouns taken in a general sense. For example, French use articles as illustrated in Figure 16, but do not use them as shown in Figure 17.

Figure 16

Examples of Correct Use of Articles in French

Ils veulent <u>la</u> liberte.	`They want liberty.'
L'avarice est un vice.	`Avarice is a vice.'
L'or est un metal.	`Gold is a metal.'
Les Americains aiment <u>le</u> lait.	`Americans like milk.'

Figure 17

Examples of Incorrect Use of Articles in French

* Il aime sa liberte.	`He likes his freedom.'
* Pauvrete n'est pas vice.	`Poverty is no vice.'

2.13.1.2. In French, articles are generally used instead of the possessive adjective when referring to parts of the body or attributes of the mind, provided there is no ambiguity as to the possessor. In these cases the verb is reflexive. The examples are given in Figure 18.

Figure 18
The Use of Articles Instead of the
Possessive Adjective in French

<p>Ils se cachent <u>la</u> figure. 'They hide their faces.'</p> <p>Il s'est casse <u>le</u> cou et foule <u>le</u> poignet. 'He broke his neck and sprained his wrist.'</p> <p>Elle m'a sauve <u>la</u> vie. 'She saved my life.'</p> <p>Il me porte sur <u>les</u> nerfs. 'He gets on my nerves.'</p>

2.13.1.3. The definite article is used before units of weights, measures, quantity, and when referring to a prize. Examples of this rule are given in Figure 19.

Figure 19
Examples of Use of Definite Article in French

<p>Dix francs <u>la</u> livre. 'Ten francs a (per) pound'</p> <p>Cinq francs <u>la</u> douzaine. 'Five francs a dozen.'</p> <p>Cent francs <u>le</u> metre. '100 francs a meter.'</p>
--

2.13.1.4. The definite article is generally used with nouns particularized by an adjective or otherwise as illustrated in Figures 20 and 21.

Figure 20

The use of Definite Article with Adjectives

Le President Lincoln a ete assassine.
 'President Lincoln was murdered.'

Le docteur Dubois est parti.
 'Dr.Dubois has left.'

Le pauvre Paul a du chagrin.
 'Poor Paul is sad.'

However, they are not used in direct address, as shown in Figure 21.

Figure 21

Article Deletion in Direct Address in French

Au revoir, docteur.
 'Good-bye, doctor.'

Pauvre Paul! Comme je te plains!
 'Poor Paul! How sorry I am for you!'

Entendu, mon general.
 'Agreed, General Lapaix.'

2.13.1.5. The definite article is used before the days of the week, in the sense of "each", especially when the meaning would not allow the adding of such words as hier 'yesterday', demain 'tomorrow', aujourd'hui 'today', prochain 'next', dernier 'last', etc. Other examples are given in Figure 22.

Figure 22

The Use of the Definite Article

Before the Days by French

Je le vois le lundi.

'I see him on Mondays.'

Nous partirons le jeudi 24 juin.

'We shall leave on Thursday, June 24th.'

2.13.1.6. The definite article is generally used before names of holidays: la Noel (Christmas), le Jour de l'An (New Year's Day), la Toussaint (All Saint's Day), le lundi de Pâques (Easter Monday), etc., but not in Pâques (Easter).

2.13.1.7. The definite article is occasionally used before proper names of persons to express admiration or contempt: la Champmesle (a great actress), la Dubarry (the Dubarry woman); also to refer to several persons by the same name: les deux Dumas, les Goncourt; and as an inherent part of the name: La Fayette, Le Corbusier. Also, it is used by people in lower socio-economic classes in various regions of French.

2.13.1.8. In some expressions, the definite article is used instead of the indefinite article as in the examples presented in Figure 23.

Figure 23

**The Use of the Definite Article Instead of
the Indefinite Article in French**

<p>Pretez-lui <u>la</u> main. 'Give him <u>a</u> hand.'</p> <p>Avec <u>le</u> sourire. 'With <u>a</u> smile.'</p> <p>Donnons l'exemple. 'Let us set <u>an</u> example.'</p> <p>Elle met <u>le</u> doigt partout. 'She has <u>a</u> finger in every pie.'</p>
--

2.13.2 Use Of The Indefinite Article:

Contrary to English usage, the indefinite article in French must be used in the following cases:

2.13.2.1. Sometimes before each noun of a series: For example, French use the indefinite article in the sentence 'Ce doit etre un homme, une femme ou un enfant.' (It must be a man, woman or child.); but they do not use the indefinite article in a sentence like 'Tout le monde etait la: hommes, femmes, enfants.' (Everyone was there: men, women, children).

2.13.2.2. The indefinite article is usually used before a qualified abstract noun. The examples are presented in Figure 24.

Figure 24
The Use of the Indefinite Article Before
Abstract Nouns in French

Il a montre un grand courage.
 'He showed great courage.'

Elle a une sante florissante.
 'She enjoys radiant health.)

Ils jouissent d'une liberte illimitee.
 'They enjoy unlimited freedom.'

J'ai eprouve un plaisir infini a le faire.
 'I had infinite pleasure in doing it.'

2.13.3 Omission Of The Article

2.13.3.1. Contrary to English usage, the definite article is omitted with the names of principles, kings, emperors, popes, etc. The examples of this rule are illustrated in Figure 25.

Figure 25
The Omission of the Indefinite Article in French

Napoleon Ier (premier).
 'Napoleon I (the First)

Elisabeth II (deux).
 'Elizabeth II (the Second).'

Pie VII (sept).
 'Pius VII (the Seventh).'

2.13.3.2. Both the definite and indefinite articles are omitted after such words and expressions as comme, en, en tant, que, jamais,

sans, etc. Other examples are shown in Figure 26.

Figure 26

The Omission of Definite & Indefinite
Article in French

Il est tres connu comme ecrivain.
 'He is very well known as a writer.'
 Il se conduit en honete homme.
 'He acts like an honest man.'
 Je suis sorti sans chapeau.
 'I went out without a hat.'
 Jamais femme ne fut plus devouee.
 'Never was a woman more devoted.'

2.13.3.3. The French article is omitted before an unmodified predicate noun used adjectively with reference to the general status of a person or the race, nationality, religion, profession or group to which he belongs. The examples of this rule are illustrated in Figure 27.

Figure 27

The Omission of the Indefinite Article Before
Unmodified Nouns in French

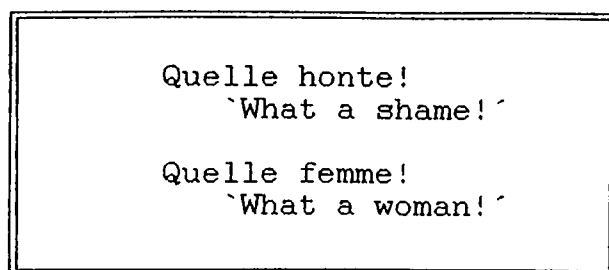
Il est Americain.
 'He is an American.'
 Il a ete soldat.
 'He was a soldier.'

2.13.3.4. The article is omitted before the exclamatory words quel, quelle, etc. The examples

of this are shown in Figure 28.

Figure 28

The Omission of Articles Before
Exclamatory Words in French



2.13.3.5. Finally, the article is omitted in many expressions such as following:

Il l'a mis en lieu sur.
(He put it in a safe place.)

Il a droit a notre respect.
(He has a right to our respect.)

Vous devez preter serment.
(You must take an oath.)

2.13.3.6. Sometimes the mere use or omission of the article may change the meaning:

"Metre une lettre sous enveloppe" means to put a letter in an envelope, but "mettre une lettre sous une enveloppe" means to put it under an envelope;

"Fair feu" means to shoot, a fire, but "faire du feu" (or un feu) means to light a fire;

Demander raison is to call upon to account for, to demand satisfaction for, but "demander la raison" (de quelque chose) means to ask the reason for.

Since the definite article in French accompanies nouns which are used in a general sense

as mentioned above, native speakers of French learning English tend to say;

- * I like the Baroque music.
- * The whisky is a stronger drink than the sherry.

In French, the indefinite article can be omitted after some prepositions. Owing to this fact, French learners of English might make mistakes in sentences which require the use of an article after a preposition:

- * Did Tom go out without hat?
- * I used my spoon as shovel.
- * We stayed in hotel where the scenery was wonderful.
- * You can buy books and notebooks from stationary store.

Based on the information mentioned above, other typical mistakes arising from French use of articles can be predicted as in Figure 29.

Figure 29

Inappropriate Use of Articles by French EFL Learners

- * the Mike's book
 - * What time do you have the dinner?
 - * The English is a difficult language.
 - * He's coming the next week.
 - * the Cambridge University
 - * the Princess Caroline
 - * I am not in the office the Thursday.

2.4 THE ARTICLE IN GERMAN

Because of the close family relationship between English and German, there are many similarities between the two languages as regards phonology, vocabulary, and syntax. German speakers therefore find English easy to learn initially, and tend to make rapid progress (Swan, 1980).

The German and English grammatical systems are also very similar in most ways: there are the same 'parts of speech' categories, and German has, for instance, singular and plural verb forms, definite and indefinite articles, regular and irregular verbs, auxiliary and modal verbs, active and passive forms, and past, present and future tenses. Since German is a highly inflected language, words tend to change their endings according to their grammatical function; articles, adjectives and nouns, for example, have different form 'cases' according to whether the noun phrase is a subject, direct object, indirect object or possessor. This means that word order is somewhat freer than in English, where the grammatical function of a word is mostly indicated by its position.

There are also some differences between the German and English languages. In German, the definite article accompanies nouns which are used in a general sense;

Die Bucher sind heutzutage zu teuer.

(The books are very expensive these days.)

Wir alle haben in der Gesellschaft zu leben.

(We all have to live in the society.)

On the other hand, like in Turkish and French, the definite article is not used when defining people's professions. The examples of this rule are presented in Figure 30.

Figure 30

**The Omission of the Definite
Article by German EFL Learners**

- * Meine Schwester ist Ärztin
 `My sister is doctor.'
- * Ich möchte Journalist werden.
 `I want to be journalist.'
- * Eine von meinen guten Freundinnen arbeitet
 als Krankenschwester in einem Krankenhaus.
 `One of my close friends works in a hospital
 as nurse.'

However, the indefinite article is often omitted after mit (=with) and ohne (=without) as in the examples illustrated in Figure 31.

Figure 31

**The Omission of the Indefinite
Article by German EFL Learners**

- * Du kannst ohne Auto dorthin nicht fahren.
 `You can not get there without car.'
- * Gehst du ohne Regenschirm heraus?
 `Are you going out without umbrella?'

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This study aims to determine whether learners' first language (L1) affects their judgments of grammatical correctness of sentences containing errors in use of articles. If so, the implication is that the learners' L1 may also influence their L2 performance. According to the Contrastive Analysis (CA) approach, interference is due to unfamiliarity with the L2, that is, to the learners' not having learned target language patterns. On the other hand, transfer refers to a process described as the automatic, uncontrolled, and subconscious use of L1 in the attempts to produce new utterances in L2 and it may be of two types; 'negative' and 'positive' (Haugen, 1978). The automatic "transfer" of L1 structure to L2 performance is 'negative' when L1 and L2 structures differ, and 'positive' when L1 and L2 structures are the same. Thus, positive transfer, according to the CA, would result in correct constructions.

The relationship between learners' native and second languages can be viewed from different aspects of learners' verbal performance, such as grammatical errors, non-use of L1 rules similar in L2, judgments of grammatical correctness, and avoidance. The purpose of this particular study is to explore the relationship between the learners'

judgments of grammatical correctness of various sentences containing the articles a, an, or the and the learners' first languages.

Research related to this study (Ioup and Kruse 1977; Schacher, Tyson, and Diffley 1976) has shown that there was no significant relationship between the students' L1 and their judgments about grammatical correctness in L2. In these studies, a variety of misformed relative clause sentences were constructed based on a one-to-one translation from the native languages of the subjects. No significant relationship was found between the subjects' first languages and their judgments of grammatical correctness of the sentences. However, unlike this research, the subjects of these previous studies lived in a second language environment where native speaker input was readily available. In addition, this study also differs from the previous ones in its research methodology. In this study subjects first were asked to write a composition about a given topic and then their own sentences containing both appropriate and inappropriate uses of the articles a, an, and the in English were extracted for use in a questionnaire.

3.2 Variables

The independent variable in this study is the learners' first languages. The dependent variable is the learners' judgments of grammatical

correctness in sentences using the article a, an, and the.

3.3 SUBJECTS

The subjects who participated in this study came from four different L1 backgrounds-Turkish, Japanese, French, and German. Subjects from two first language backgrounds, Japanese and Turkish, were selected since they have a common feature in their L1 in terms of using no article. On the other hand, the other subjects, French and German, had first languages where articles are used.

Forty subjects, 10 from each of the four first language groups, were selected for this study. They ranged in ages from 18 to 23. The Turkish and Japanese subjects were studying English at the intermediate level at Turkce Ogretim Merkezi (TOMER) in Ankara. The other groups of subjects were native speakers of French who were studying intermediate level English at the Turkish-French Association and native speakers of German who were also studying English at the same level at the private school of The German Embassy in Ankara. All students in the four classes were selected without taking into consideration their sex or ages. In addition, cooperation from the teachers was required so that the study could be administered during class time.

3.3 MATERIALS

The materials of this study consisted of the subjects' writing samples and a questionnaire which contained their own correct and incorrect sentences using the articles a, an, and the which were extracted from these writing samples.

3.3.1 Writing Samples of Subjects

In this present study, subjects were asked to write a composition entitled "How I Learned English". Students were told that the essay would not be evaluated, so they were able to write freely without concentrating on grammar or spelling and were free from exam anxiety. Subjects were given the entire class period to complete their essays.

In this initial part of the study, the researcher focused on learners' production of errors in the use of the articles a, an, and the. Since the article in English has always been considered one of the formidable problems to overcome in teaching English grammar to foreigners and article error is one the most obvious grammatical signs that a person is not a native speaker of English, this study targeted this grammatical structure as an example of negative transfer.

3.3.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of 30 sentences that contained both correct and incorrect use of the articles a, an, and the (See

Appendix B). At first, 43 sentences were extracted from the subjects essays on the subject "How I learned English." (See Appendix A). Incorrect sentences had article deletion or misuse of articles a, an, or the whereas correct ones had appropriate use of the article. Since not all native speakers agree on the use of articles, these correct and incorrect sentences were also checked by British native speakers to be sure that native speakers agreed on the use of articles which were used in the questionnaire. As a result 30 out of 43 sentences were included in the questionnaire and presented in random order in a written list. So, the questionnaire consisted of 30 both correct and incorrect sentences using the articles a, an, and the which were written by the subjects in their writing samples.

The purpose of using this questionnaire was to find out whether there was a relationship between the subject's first language group and his or her judgments of grammatical correctness on various sentences containing grammatical items a, an, or the. Therefore, it was constructed in a way that would enable subjects to make interferences from their native language by judging the sentences to be correct or incorrect. The questionnaire consisted of subjects' own sentences that contained either an article or an incorrect deletion of an article. It

was hypothesized that the subjects from the two first language backgrounds where articles are not used (Japanese and Turkish) would differ in their judgments of grammaticality from the other subjects who have first languages where articles are used (French and German).

3.4 PROCEDURES/DATA COLLECTION

The data were collected in the intermediate-level classes of four schools in Ankara, Turkey-Turkce Ogretim Merkezi (TOMER), a branch of Ankara University; the Turkish-French Association; and the private school of the German Embassy. Subjects were asked to write a composition on the subject "How I learned English" during a one-hour class. Thus, 40 writing samples were obtained from subjects from four different L1 backgrounds. Then, 43 sentences containing both appropriate and inappropriate use of the articles a, an, and the in English were extracted from the compositions. Afterwards, these sentences were checked by 10 native speakers, all of them British, before they were given to the subjects to be sure that native speakers agreed on the appropriate use of articles used in the selected sentences. Finally, the subjects were administered a questionnaire which contained the 30 sentences presented in random order.

3.5 ANALYTICAL PROCEDURES

In analyzing the data, students were initially classified into two groups according to their first language backgrounds. The first group consisted of subjects from Japanese and Turkish first language backgrounds. They were placed in the same group since they had a common feature in their L1 in terms of using no article. The subjects from French and German first language backgrounds constituted the second group.

In order to test whether article features in a first language affect grammaticality judgments, the mean scores and standard deviations for the 20 subjects in each of the two combined first language groups were computed and a t-test was run to compare the differences between the means. Next, a four-way comparison was made between the mean scores of the four first language groups using a one-way analysis of variance. This was done in order to observe the differential performance of the four groups in the questionnaire. Since a significant difference was found between the four sets of mean scores, a series of post-hoc Scheffe tests were used to determine which pairs of scores were different because of factors other than chance.

Although the aim of this study was to see if the subjects from (+) article languages, French and German, were better in making judgments of

grammaticality of the sentences in the questionnaire than the subjects from (-) article languages, Turkish and Japanese, the differential performance of subjects in each of the four language groups was analyzed and described to determine if some aspect of the language itself may be a contributing factor.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to test the following question: Is there a relationship between the learners' first language and judgments of grammatical correctness of sentences in their L2? The first part of this study, therefore, involved collecting data on learners' production of writing samples with errors in the articles a, an, and the. The second part focused on recording the judgments from the same learners about the grammaticality of the writing samples containing these errors. The subjects selected for this study came from four different L1 backgrounds. The subjects with Turkish or Japanese as their first languages were selected since they do not use articles in their L1. On the other hand, the other subjects had first languages where articles are commonly used (French and German).

The content of the questionnaire, that is, the sentences containing errors in article usage, was obtained from the subjects' writing samples. The questionnaire consisted of 30 sentences containing both correct and incorrect usage of the articles a, an, and the. In order to obtain baseline data, 43 sentences were extracted from the subjects' writing samples and presented to 10 native speakers of British (See Appendix A). They were asked to

indicate correct and incorrect sentences and underline the incorrect portion of the sentence by writing the correct form above. After the responses of the 10 British native speakers of English were analyzed, 30 sentences that included both correct and incorrect uses of articles were included in the questionnaire (See Appendix B).

The expected response for the items is as follows: For items 1, 2, 3, 6, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 19, 21, 23, 28, 30 (Confirmation of articles a, an, or the), subjects were expected to confirm the grammaticality of these statements as correct in terms of having an appropriate use of the articles a, an, or the. For item 5, subjects were expected to insert the article a before the noun 'teacher' while judging this item as grammatically incorrect. As for items 7 and 4, subjects were expected to confirm these statements as incorrect and insert the article the before the adjective '7th' and the noun 'future'. Item 22 required subjects to delete the article a before the noun 'life'. For items 8, 17, 18, 20, 24, 25, 26, subjects were expected to underline the article the as an incorrect portion of these statements and delete it. Items 9 and 27 required deleting the article a and using the article an instead. For item 13, subjects were expected to insert the article an before the noun 'international' while judging this item as

grammatically incorrect. Finally, item 29 required subjects to substitute the article a instead of an.

4.2 ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.2.1 Analysis by (+) Article and (-) Article Groups

In analyzing the data, subjects were initially classified into two groups according to their first language backgrounds. The subjects from Turkish and Japanese constituted the first group. They were placed in the same group since they had a common feature in their L1 in terms of using no article. The second group consisted of subjects from French and German languages where articles are commonly used.

Since the aim of the study was to see if the subjects from (+) article first languages were better in making judgments on grammaticality of the sentences containing both correct and incorrect uses of the articles a, an, and the in English than the ones from (-) article first languages, the mean scores and standard deviations for the subjects in each of the two combined first language groups were calculated (Table 4.1).

TABLE 4.1

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Two
Language Groups (+ Article and - Article)

Item #	(-) Article		(+) Article	
	M	SD	M	SD
1	.90	.30	1	0
2	.85	.36	1	0
3	.80	.41	1	0
4	.05	.22	.50	.51
5	.40	.5	.80	.41
6	1	0	1	0
7	.25	.44	.55	.51
8	.25	.44	.70	.47
9	.60	.50	.85	.36
10	1	.50	.75	.44
11	.95	.22	1	0
12	.80	.41	1	0
13	.60	.50	1	0
14	1	0	1	0
15	.95	.22	1	0
16	.70	.47	1	0
17	.35	.48	.80	.41
18	.25	.44	.40	.50
19	.70	.47	.80	.41
20	.55	.51	1	0
21	.85	.36	1	0
22	.55	.51	1	0
23	.95	.22	1	0
24	.10	.30	.85	.36
25	.05	.22	.35	.48
26	.01	.30	.60	.50
27	.50	.51	.40	.50
28	1	0	1	0
29	.55	.51	.10	.30
30	.80	.41	1	0
Total	.63	.31	.82	.25
t-value:	2.61	p<.005		

As Table 4.1 indicates, subjects with (+) article languages (French and German) were better than subjects with (-) article languages (Turkish and Japanese) in making judgments on grammaticality of statements which appear in the questionnaire. When t-test of overall means was run on the questionnaire as a whole it was found that there was

a significant difference between the (+) article languages and the (-) article languages at the $p < .005$ level.

Following this procedures, the second part of the analysis aimed to investigate the significant differences of subjects in the two groups in terms of making judgments about inappropriate use of articles which were found in each individual item in the questionnaire. In order to compare the differences between the means, t-tests were run for each item and the results obtained are shown in the tables below according to the grammatical features related to the items. Table 4.2 presents the results of the t-test analysis of items relating to deletion of the in (+) article and (-) article first language groups.

TABLE 4.2

Descriptive Statistics For T-Test Analysis of Items Relating to Deletion of the in (-) Article and (+) Article Groups

Item #	(-) Art. M	(-) Art. SD	(+) Art. M	(+) Art. SD	t-value	Sig. Lev.
8	.25	.44	.70	.47	3.1	.000
17	.35	.48	.80	.41	3.15	.003
18	.25	.44	.40	.50	1.00	.324
20	.55	.51	1.0	0	6.29	.0001
24	.10	.30	.85	.36	7.01	.000
25	.05	.22	.35	.48	2.49	.017
26	.10	.30	.60	.50	3.79	.001
Totals	1.65	1.424	4.70	1.525	6.54	.000

As hypothesized, when the results were examined, it was seen that article features in a first language affect grammaticality judgments. As

Table 4.2 demonstrates, subjects from the two first language backgrounds where articles are not used (Turkish and Japanese) did worse than the other subjects who have first languages where articles are used (French and German) in making judgments on grammaticality of items 8, 17, 18, 20, 24, 25, and 26 which required deleting the article the.

Likewise, subjects from the (+) article groups performed significantly better in judging item 22 which required deleting the article a than did those from the (-) article languages (See Table 4.3).

TABLE 4.3

Descriptive Statistics For T-Test Analysis Of Items
Relating to Deletion of a in (-) Article and (+)
Article Groups

Item #	(-) Art. M	Art. SD	(+) Art. M	Art. SD	t-value	Sig.Lev
22	.55	.51	1.00	0	5.01	.0005

Moreover, as for items 4 and 7 which required subjects to insert the article the, subjects from the (+) article group achieved higher scores than subjects from the other group (See Table 4.4)

TABLE 4.4

Descriptive Statistics For T-Test Analysis Of Items
Relating to Insertion of the in (-) Article and (+)
Article Groups

Item #	(-) Art. M	Art. SD	(+) Art. M	Art. SD	t-value	Sig.Lev.
4	.05	.22	.50	.51	3.6	.001
7	.25	.44	.55	.51	1.9	.055
Totals	.30	.47	1.05	.759	3.76	.001

As Table 4.5 presents below, subjects with (+) article languages (French and German) were better than subjects with (-) article languages (Turkish and Japanese) in making judgments on grammaticality of item 5 which required inserting the article *a*.

TABLE 4.5

Descriptive Statistics For T-Test Analysis Of Items Relating to Insertion of *a* in (-) Article and (+) Article Groups

Item #	(-) Art. M	(-) Art. SD	(+) Art. M	(+) Art. SD	t-value	Sig.Lev.
5	.40	.5	.80	.41	2.76	.009

Furthermore, when making judgments on the grammaticality of item 13 which required subjects to insert the article *an*, subjects from the two first language backgrounds where articles are not used (Turkish and Japanese) performed significantly worse than the other subjects who have first languages where articles are used, French and German, (See Table 4.6).

TABLE 4.6

Descriptive Statistics For T-Test Analysis Of Items Relating to Insertion of *an* in (-) Article and (+) Article Groups

Item #	(-) Art. M	(-) Art. SD	(+) Art. M	(+) Art. SD	t-value	Sig.Lev.
13	.60	.50	1.00	0	4.00	.001

Again, the results given below in Table 4.7 showed that the subjects from the (+) article first language backgrounds received higher scores also for

items 9 and 27 (relating to substitution of an) than the subjects from the (-) article first language backgrounds.

TABLE 4.7

Descriptive Statistics For T-Test Analysis Of Items Relating to Substitution of an in (-) Article and (+) Article Groups

Item #	(-) Art. M	Art. SD	(+) Art. M	Art. SD	t-value	Sig.Lev.
9	.60	.50	.85	.36	1.80	.81
27	.50	.51	.40	.50	2.49	.49
Totals	1.25	.55	1.10	.82	0.66	.513

On the other hand, one point deserves attention: The subjects from (-) article first languages performed significantly better in distinguishing between article a and an than the subjects from (+) article first languages. Although the subjects from the (+) article first language backgrounds made correct judgments for almost each item in the questionnaire, the subjects from (-) article first languages (Turkish and Japanese) were better in judging the grammaticality of item 29 which required substituting a instead of an (See Table 4.8).

TABLE 4.8

Descriptive Statistics For T-Test Analysis Of Items Relating to Substitution of a in (-) Article and (+) Article Groups

Item #	(-) Art. M	Art. SD	(+) Art. M	Art. SD	t-value	Sig.Lev.
29	.55	.51	.10	.30	3.38	.002

4.2.2 Analysis by Nationality

As a third step of the data analysis, a four-way comparison was made between the mean scores of the four first language groups (Turkish, Japanese, French, and German) using a one-way analysis of variance. This was done in order to observe the differential performance of these groups in all the items. First one-way analysis was run by combining all items where significant differences were found by nationality (See Table 4.9). These items are 3, 4, 8, 12, 13, 17, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29.

TABLE 4.9

Analysis of Variance For Combined Items

By Nationality

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	150.2750	50.0917	22.7977	.0000
Wth.Grps.	36	79.1000	2.1972		
Total	39	229.3750			

The means of the groups are shown in Table 4.10.

TABLE 4.10

Means of Four First Language Groups on Combining Items 3, 4, 8, 12, 13, 17, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29.

Turkish	Japan	French	German
4.90	4.50	8.30	8.80

When the ANOVA results found in Table 4.9 were analysed, it was observed that in combining items

the four language groups differed significantly in their judgment about grammatical correctness ($F=22.79$, $p<.05$). Here, the Turkish and Japanese achieved almost equally lower scores (4.9 and 4.5, respectively). On the other hand, the German subjects did better than the French subjects. Since there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the four groups when combining the items, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run. The results of the test show that there are five significantly different pairs of scores: Turkish-German, Turkish-French, Japanese-German, Japanese-French, and French-German. Thus, pairwise differences were attributed to the high scores of the German subjects on a score combining items 3, 4, 8, 12, 13, 17, 20, 22, 24, 26, 29.

Second, an individual item analysis was done for the items where significant differences between the groups were found.

TABLE 4.11

Analysis of Variance for Item 3 (Confirmation a)

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	1.2000	.4000	6.0000	.0020
Wth.Grps.	36	2.4000	.0667		
Total	39	3.6000			

TABLE 4.12

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 3

Turkish	Japan	French	German
1.0	.60	1.0	1.0

As indicated in the ANOVA Table 4.11 it was found that there was a significant difference between the four sets of mean scores on Item 3 which required the subjects to confirm the correct usage of the article *a*. The means of the groups are shown in Table 4.12. Then, pairwise differences were computed by using a post-hoc Scheffe test. Results of the test show that the subjects in the (+) article first languages, French and German, and those in one of the (-) article languages, Turkish, did equally well (1.0) while the Japanese subjects received lower scores (.60). Thus, significant pairwise differences were found between Japanese-Turkish, Japanese-French, Japanese-German.

TABLE 4.13

Analysis of Variance for Item 4 (Insertion of the)

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	2.2750	.7583	4.7895	.0066
Wth.Grps.	36	5.7000	.1583		
Total	39	7.9750			

TABLE 4.14

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 4

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.0	.10	.60	.40

In the ANOVA results presented in Table 4.13, the four language groups differed significantly in their judgments about grammatical correctness of the insertion of the ($F=4.79$, $p<.05$). The means of the groups are shown in Table 4.14. Since there were significant differences between the mean scores of the (+) article first language (French and German) subjects and the (-) article language (Turkish and Japanese) subjects at the .050 level, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run to find which pairs of scores were different. As a result, the pairs of French-Turkish, French-Japanese, French-German, German-Turkish, and German-Japanese had significantly different mean scores. Scoring the highest were the subjects from French backgrounds first language who did better than the German subjects, while the subjects from a Turkish first language performed worse than the Japanese subjects.

The ANOVA results, found in Table 4.15, show that in item 8 (deletion of the) the four language groups differed significantly in their judgment about grammatical correctness ($F= 3.15$, $p<.05$).

TABLE 4.15

Analysis of Variance for Item 8 (Deletion the)

Source	D.F.	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	2.0750	.6917	3.1519	.0366
Wth.Grps.	36	7.9000	.2194		
Total	39	9.9750			

The means of the groups are shown in Table 4.16.

TABLE 4.16

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 8

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.20	.30	.70	.70

Therefore, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run to determine which pairs of scores are different because of factors other than chance. However, the results of Scheffe test show that there were no significantly different pairwise differences at the .05 level.

TABLE 4.17

Analysis of Var. for Item 12
(Confirmation of article)

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	1.2000	.4000	6.0000	.0020
Wth.Grps.	36	2.4000	.0667		
Total	39	3.6000			

TABLE 4.18
Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 12

Turkish	Japan	French	German
1.0	.60	1.0	1.0

As indicated in the ANOVA Table 4.17 it was found that there was a significant difference between the four sets of mean scores on Item 12. Therefore a post-hoc Scheffe test was run to observe which pairs of mean scores were different. The analysis of the results obtained through the post-hoc Scheffe test show that there are three significantly different pairs of scores: Japanese-Turkish, Japanese-French, and Japanese-German (See Table 4.18). These pairwise differences were attributed to the low scores of Japanese subjects on this item.

TABLE 4.19
Analysis of Variance for Item 13 (Insertion of an)

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	1.6000	.5333	4.0000	.0148
Wth.Grps.	36	4.8000	.1333		
Total	39	6.4000			

TABLE 4.20

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 13

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.60	.60	1.0	1.0

The results of the one-way analysis of variance for Item 13 which required the subjects to insert article an before a noun showed that there was a significant difference between the means scores of (+) article first languages and (-) article first languages (Table 4.19). Then, pairwise differences were computed by using a post-hoc Scheffe test. Results of the test show that (+) article first languages, French and German, received the same scores (0.60) and (-) article first languages, Turkish and Japanese also did equally well (1.0). Thus, significant pairwise differences were found between Turkish-French, Turkish-German, Japanese-French, and Japanese-German.

TABLE 4.21

Analysis of Variance for Item 17 (Deletion of the)

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	2.2750	.7583	3.6400	.0216
Wth.Grps.	36	7.5000	.2083		
Total	39	9.7750			

TABLE 4.22
Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 17

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.30	.40	.70	.90

The ANOVA results, presented in Table 4.21, show that there was a highly significant difference between the four sets of mean scores on Item 17 which required deleting the article the. The highest mean scores for Item 17 (Deletion of the) were obtained from one of (+) article first languages (German) and the lowest scores belong to first Japanese and then Turkish which are (-) article first languages. The means of the groups are shown in Table 4.22. In order to see which pairs of scores are different because of factors other than chance, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run. The analysis of the results obtained through the post-hoc Scheffe test show that there are four significantly different pairs of scores: French Turkish, French-Japanese, German-Turkish, and German-Japanese. Thus, pairwise differences were attributed to higher scores of the German and French subjects on this item.

TABLE 4.23

Analysis of Variance for Item 20 (Deletion of the)

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	2.4750	.8250	6.6000	.0011
Wth.Grps.	36	4.5000	.1250		
Total	39	6.9750			

TABLE 4.24

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 20

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.70	.40	1.0	1.0

When the ANOVA results found in Table 4.23 were analyzed, it was observed that in item 20 (deletion of the) the four language groups differed significantly in their judgment about grammatical correctness ($F = 6.60$, $p < .05$). Here, the French and German subjects achieved equally higher scores. On the other hand, Japanese did worse than Turkish subjects. Since both of the latter are (-) article groups, this was an event not anticipated in the hypotheses of this study. The means of the groups are shown in Table 4.24. Since there were significant differences between the mean scores of four groups on Item 20, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run. The results of the test show that are five significantly different pairs of scores: Turkish-Japanese, Turkish-French, Turkish-German, Japanese-

French, and also Japanese-German.

TABLE 4.25

Analysis of Variance for Item 22 (Deletion of a)

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps.	3	2.0750	.6917	5.0816	.0049
Wth.Grps.	36	4.9000	.1361		
Total	39	6.9750			

TABLE 4.26

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 22

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.50	.60	1.0	1.0

In the ANOVA results presented in Table 4.25, the four language groups differed significantly in their judgment about grammatical correctness of the deletion of a (Item 22)-(F=5.08, $p<.05$). The means of the groups are shown in Table 4.20. Since there were significant differences between the mean scores of (+) article first languages (French and German) and (-) article languages (Turkish and Japanese) at the .050 level, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run to find which pairs of scores were different. As a result, the pairs of German-Turkish, German-Japanese, French-Turkish, French-Japanese had significantly different mean scores. Scoring the highest were the subjects from French and German first languages, who did equally well, while the

subjects from Turkish first language performed worse than the Japanese subjects.

TABLE 4.27

Analysis of Variance for Item 24 (Deletion of the)

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps	3	5.8750	1.9583	17.1951	.0000
Wth.Grps.	36	4.1000	.1139		
Total	39	9.9750			

TABLE 4.28

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 24

Turkish	Japan	French	German
. 0	.20	.80	.90

When a one-way analysis of variance was run, it was observed that there were highly significant differences ($p < .001$) between the mean scores of four sets of language groups on item 24 (See Table 4.27). Therefore, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run and significant differences between five pairs of mean scores were found: German-Turkish, German-Japanese, German-French, French-Turkish, French-Japanese. The subjects from Turkish first language got zero. The Japanese subjects did better than the subjects from Turkish first language whereas the subjects from German first language received higher scores than the subjects from French first language. The latter pairwise difference, which was significant, was not

anticipated in the hypotheses of this study.

TABLE 4.29

Analysis of Variance for Item 26 (Deletion of the)

Source	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps	3	3.5000	1.1667	7.5000	.0005
Wth.Grps.	36	5.6000	.1556		
Total	39	9.1000			

TABLE 4.30

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 26

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.0	.20	.40	.80

The ANOVA results, found in Table 4.29, show that in item 26 the four language groups differed significantly in their judgments about the grammatical correctness of the deletion of the ($F=7.50$, $p<.05$). The means of the groups are shown in Table 4.30.

Since it was found that there was a significant difference between the four sets of mean scores on item 26, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run to determine which pairs of scores were different because of factors other than chance. The analysis of the results obtained through the post-hoc Scheffe test show that there are six significantly different pairs of scores: Japanese-Turkish, Japanese-French, Japanese-German, Turkish-French, Turkish-German, and

also French-German. Thus, pairwise differences were attributed to the zero mean score of Turkish subjects and also the high scores of German subjects on this item.

TABLE 4.31

Analysis of Variance for Item 29 (Substitution of a)

Scores	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps	3	2.0750	.6917	3.7164	.0199
Wth.Grps.	36	6.7000	.1861		
Total	39	8.7750			

TABLE 4.32

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 29

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.60	.50	.10	.10

The ANOVA results, presented in Table 4.31, show that there was a significant difference between the four sets of mean scores on item 29 which contained the substitution of a. Therefore, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run to determine which pairs of scores were different. However, the results of Scheffe test show that there were no significantly different pairwise differences at the .050 level.

4.3 CONCLUSIONS

When the data of the study were analyzed, significant differences between the performance of the two languages groups were observed. Moreover,

also French-German. Thus, pairwise differences were attributed to the zero mean score of Turkish subjects and also the high scores of German subjects on this item.

TABLE 4.31

Analysis of Variance for Item 29 (Substitution of a)

Scores	D.F	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob.
Btw.Grps	3	2.0750	.6917	3.7164	.0199
Wth.Grps.	36	6.7000	.1861		
Total	39	8.7750			

TABLE 4.32

Means of Four First Language Groups on Item 29

Turkish	Japan	French	German
.60	.50	.10	.10

The ANOVA results, presented in Table 4.31, show that there was a significant difference between the four sets of mean scores on item 29 which contained the substitution of a. Therefore, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run to determine which pairs of scores were different. However, the results of Scheffe test show that there were no significantly different pairwise differences at the .050 level.

4.3 CONCLUSIONS

When the data of the study were analyzed, significant differences between the performance of the two languages groups were observed. Moreover,

subjects' first languages influenced their judgments of grammatical correctness of sentences containing errors in the use of articles. The subjects from the (+) article first languages, French and German, performed significantly better than the subjects from the (-) article first languages, Turkish and Japanese, while making judgments on grammaticality of the items in the questionnaire. Significant differences between the performance of (+) article first languages and (-) article first languages groups were found, so post-hoc Scheffe tests were done to observe the differential performance of the four groups in the questionnaire. The subjects whose first language was German had the highest mean and standard deviation whereas the subjects from the Japanese language had the lowest means out of the four language groups.

Based on the differential performance found between the four groups in the questionnaire, it is possible to conclude that EFL learners' judgments of grammatical correctness in terms of appropriate use of articles a, an, and the were affected by the differences between their first and second languages. Thus, the experimental hypothesis was confirmed.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Analysis of the results obtained from the study provide support for the hypothesis that there is a relationship between the learners' judgments of grammatical correctness on various sentences containing article a, an, or the and their first languages. The results demonstrate a significant difference between the performances of the subjects from (+) article languages and those from (-) article languages. Therefore, the null hypotheses can be rejected. Based on these findings, in this study, having a first language where articles are used provided the learners with additional information to make judgments on grammaticality of appropriate use of articles a, an, and the in English sentences better than not having such a first language.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THESIS

Subjects participating in the study came from four different L1 backgrounds, Turkish, Japanese, French, and German. The initial research procedures consisted of asking subjects to write a composition on how they learned English. In this part of the study, the researcher focused on learners' production of errors only in the articles a, an, and the in writing samples. Then, 43 sentences that contained both correct and incorrect usage of the

articles a, an, or the were extracted from the subjects writing samples. These sentences were checked by 10 native speakers of British English before they were given to the subjects to be sure that native speakers agreed on the use of articles in the extracted sentences. Then 30 sentences were extracted out of the original 43 based on information provided by native speakers, and these were used in the questionnaire. After this, the non-native speaking subjects were asked to indicate correct and incorrect sentences and underline the incorrect portion of the sentence and write the correct form above.

In analyzing the data, subjects were initially classified into two groups according to their first language backgrounds. Subjects who spoke Turkish and Japanese were placed in the (-) article language group whereas the others who spoke French and German constituted the (+) article language group. The analysis of results showed that subjects from (+) article languages respond differently than the subjects from (-) article languages when making judgments on grammaticality. Moreover, the differential performance found between the two groups in the questionnaire confirmed the hypothesis that EFL learners' judgments of grammatical correctness were affected by the differences between their first and second languages in terms of

appropriate use of articles a, an, and the.

5.2.1 Discussion of Previous Research

These findings are contrary to the findings of previous research in the same field. Research related to this study (Ioup and Kruse 1977; Schacher, Tyson, and Diffley 1976) has shown that there was no significant relationship between the students' L1 and their judgments about grammatical correctness in L2. This may be due to the fact that those studies were conducted in a second language environment where native-speaker input was more readily available whereas this particular study was conducted in a foreign language environment. In addition, this study also differs from previous ones in its research methodology. The previous researchers constructed a variety of misformed relative clause sentences based on a one-to-one translation from the native languages of the subjects. On the other hand, in the present study, the subjects first wrote on an assigned topic and their own sentences were extracted and presented to them again. In addition, the grammatical focus of the study-the article- may have contributed to the differences in the findings of this research and those of the previous ones.

5.3 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

After a significant difference between the performance of the (+) article first language and

the (-) article first language groups was found, further analysis were done to observe the differential performance of the four groups in the questionnaire. Subjects whose first language was German had the highest mean scores whereas the subjects from the Japanese language group had the lowest mean scores out of the four groups. Furthermore, since each item in the questionnaire had a different article feature, the different responses obtained from the four first language groups for each item were examined according to this distinctive feature.

When the learners' correct responses for each item were classified according to their first languages, it was observed that subjects responded differently while making judgments on grammaticality of the following items in the questionnaire. The German subjects had more correct responses for items 17, 20, 24, 26 which required deleting the. In addition, subjects from both (+) article languages, French and German, were better than the subjects of other groups in making judgments on grammaticality of the items 4, 5, 7, 13 which required inserting article items a, an, or the. As for subjects from the two (-) article languages, Turkish and Japanese, they performed about equally on these same items. Nevertheless, the latter subjects were better in distinguishing between a and an (Item 29) than

subjects in the (+) article group, French and German. Based on these results, it is possible to conclude that the number of correct responses obtained from the subjects were related to their first languages in terms of article usage.

5.4 ASSESSMENT OF THE STUDY

There are several reasons other than those previously mentioned which might explain the contradiction between the results of this study and previous research done in this field. The subjects from the (+) article first languages could have found the questionnaire too easy and or for some reason they were more motivated to perform the task of making judgments of grammaticality. On the other hand, the subjects from the (-) article first languages, Turkish and Japanese, did not acknowledge that some items required an article or that some had incorrect article usage. While this might be due to the fact that they do not use articles in their first languages, another reason could be that the subjects' differed in their knowledge of the formal aspects of English grammar, even though they were placed at the same proficiency level in their courses of study.

5.5 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As for the pedagogical implications of this study, when teaching the use of articles to EFL learners, teachers should consider a strategy

(commonly known as Contrastive Analysis) for pointing out both the differences and similarities of grammatical features of the students' L1 and L2. Since the similarities and differences between the learners' first and second languages contribute to the errors students make, these differences and similarities must be recognized so that learners can process this information. After using a contrastive analysis approach to teaching structures in the target language, the teacher will next have to consider the effectiveness of constant practice and exercises in the relevant areas. To this date opinions in the literature on the effectiveness of the drill and practice activities are mixed.

Based on this research, it can be concluded that contrastive studies do, in fact, provide important data which can be used by teachers and text-books authors with respect to the selection and sequencing of target language items, as well as provide emphasis that should be given to these structures. This information may be more valuable to the learner in terms of knowing how to learn than to the teacher on how to teach.

In conclusion, it can be said that the contrastive approach to analyzing grammar is still an important tool in the processes of learning and teaching a foreign language. Its usefulness is certainly limited but it is still great enough to

justify a considerable investment of time and effort spent on its application. An approach of this kind can be expected to be widely used by foreign-language teachers, foreign-language learners, materials writers, and translators.

5.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As hypothesized, the results of this study show that there is a relationship between the learners' first language (L1) and their grammaticality judgments of appropriate use of articles a, an, and the in English sentences. Since errors in this task are only at the recognition level, it is possible that similar patterns of the differential performance of the four language groups will not appear at the productive level. Therefore, a different type of research is needed to conclude that grammatical features of learners' first language are actually transferred to their second language production.

In addition to this, this study involves the article errors made only by Turkish, Japanese, French, and German students studying English as a foreign language in Turkey. Therefore, similar research should be conducted on EFL learners from other first language backgrounds and also learners studying English in an ESL environment. Such research should involve not only subjects from first languages where grammatical features are either

present or absent, but also from first languages where these features are present, but used differently. Such research may conclude that not only differences but also similarities between languages cause confusion for second language learners.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX.A

QUESTIONNAIRE A

(Given to British Native Speakers of English)

Which of the following sentences are correct or incorrect? Write YES if the sentence is correct, write NO if it is not correct -- underline the incorrect portion of the sentence and also write the correct form above the portion.

1. I lived in a little town in the north of Bavaria.
2. It's a good experience for me to live in another country.
3. I am a 16-year-old German girl.
4. I was born on 7th of July 1977 in Dammembeng.
5. My father is teacher in the German school and my big brother and I are pupils there.
6. My father works in the Hilton Hotel.
7. I don't know what I want to do in future.
8. I love the art and I love drawing at school.
9. I know a Austrian family, they have two children.
10. My father is a dentist and my mother is an archaeologist.
11. They live in the south-east of Turkey.
12. I stay with an old woman.
13. English is international language.
14. I would like to be an international lawyer.
15. In Algers, the capital of Algeria, we have an apartment with a big garden.
16. I didn't have a house with a garden, but a small

apartment.

17. The city I love the most is Cape Town, in the south of the Africa.
18. The life in Ankara is very enjoyable and tidy.
19. The people are very polite and friendly.
20. The Ankara is the capital city of Turkey.
21. The weather is very cold in winter.
22. A life in Ankara is very difficult.
23. If you are rich you can take a taxi.
24. Everybody says that Ankara is a city for the students.
25. The food in Ankara is very delicious and cheap.
26. Living in Ankara is more beautiful than the other cities.
27. Soon, Ankara will be a extraordinary city.
28. There are many tourists who come to see the capital city of Turkey in summer.
29. My father works in an university and my mother works in a school.
30. I think it is a very easy job.
31. My father is an American and my mother is a German.
32. When I was in the second class my family moved to Munich.
33. I want to be an artist or designer.
34. I'm visiting my country only in holidays.
35. My parents say it was an nice old house.
36. At weekends, the Algerian families are on the

beach which is 20 kilometres far from the town.

37. From the beach, I could see the city which
situated at the foot of a mountain.
38. In the village, everybody knows each other.
39. My home town is the city called Ankara.
40. The people are very polite and friendly.
41. Shortly, Ankara is the capital city of Turkey.
42. Ankara is growing with the new settlements day
by day.
43. First of all, I get the books which are
necessary for learning grammar of English.

Thank you very much...

APPENDIX.B
QUESTIONNAIRE B

(Given to EFL Learners of English)

Which of the following sentences are correct or incorrect? Write YES if the sentence is correct, write NO if it is not correct -- underline the incorrect portion of the sentence and also write the correct form above the portion.

1. I lived in a little town in the north of Bavaria.
2. It's a good experience for me to live in another country.
3. I am a 16-year-old German girl.
4. I was born on 7th of July 1977 in Dammembeng.
5. My father is teacher in the German school and my big brother and I are pupils there.
6. My father works in the Hilton Hotel.
7. I don't know what I want to do in future.
8. I love the art and I love drawing at school.
9. I know a Austrian family, they have two children.
10. My father is a dentist and my mother is an archaeologist.
11. They live in the south-east of Turkey.
12. I stay with an old woman.
13. English is international language.
14. I would like to be an international lawyer.
15. In Algers, the capital of Algeria, we have an apartment with a big garden.
16. I didn't have a house with a garden, but a small

apartment.

17. The city I love the most is Cape Town, in the south of the Africa.
18. The life in Ankara is very enjoyable and tidy.
19. The people are very polite and friendly.
20. The Ankara is the capital city of Turkey.
21. The weather is very cold in winter.
22. A life in Ankara is very difficult.
23. If you are rich you can take a taxi.
24. Everybody says that Ankara is a city for the students.
25. The food in Ankara is very delicious and cheap.
26. Living in Ankara is more beautiful than the other cities.
27. Soon, Ankara will be a extraordinary city.
28. There are many tourists who come to see the capital city of Turkey in summer.
29. My father works in an university and my mother works in a school.
30. I think it is a very easy job.

Thank you very much...